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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to develop a profile of female superintendents, gather information on the experiences and concerns of superintendents and their husbands, and provide data which may assist females aspiring to the superintendency and females in their first superintendency group. To remedy this gap in knowledge, a profile of female superintendents is offered. Through the use of a structured questionnaire and an indepth, taped interview, information was gathered on the experiences and concerns of superintendents and their husbands. The study attempted to answer one question: what impact does the husband of the superintendent have on her job acceptance, performance, and retention? Subjects (N=21) were selected from the population of female superintendents in a large northeastern metropolitan region in New York. Major findings indicate that significant gains in the number of females occupying the position of superintendent were made between 1989 and 1992 and between 1992 and 1995. Husbands encouraged their wives to apply for and accept their first superintendency, and the husbands' careers were not interrupted. The women were not confronted with insurmountable obstacles related to child care and family responsibilities, although the time on the job emerged as the greatest tradeoff husbands had to make. Even so, the husbands tolerated the demands and adjusted, and the superintendents viewed their husbands, many of whom had equal or better levels of educations and positions than they did, as supportive. (RJM)

The Recognition and Legitimization of Female Superintendents as a Diverse Group Whose
Husbands Have a Direct Impact on Job Performance, Acceptance and Retention

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to (a) develop a profile of female superintendents, (b) gather information on the experiences and concerns of superintendents and their husbands, and (c) provide data which may assist females aspiring to the superintendency and females in their first superintendency. Research concerning spouses of male superintendents is limited and almost nonexistent with respect to husbands of superintendents. The researcher designed a methodology which would obtain quantitative as well as qualitative data. A combination of two data gathering instruments was used. A structured questionnaire provided a first source of data followed by an in-depth, taped interview which allowed the respondents to expound on those areas which they considered most significant. The study attempted to answer one question: What impact does the husband of the superintendent have on her job acceptance, performance and retention?

Subjects for this study were selected from the population of female superintendents in a large northeastern metropolitan region in New York State. There was a total of 789 superintendents in New York State, 91 (11.5%) of which were females. Because of the high percentage of females located in this region, it was anticipated that the results of the questionnaire and case studies would yield commonalties, insights, strategies and understandings applicable to practicing superintendents and those aspiring to the superintendency throughout New York State and the nation. All 28 of the superintendents were contacted. Twenty-one of the 28 agreed to participate in the study.

Major findings indicate (a) that significant gains in the number of females occupying the position of superintendent were made between 1989 and 1992 and between 1992 and 1995. In

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1989, 14.3% of the respondents were superintendents; in 1992, 47.6%, and in 1995, 100% occupied the position; (b) that husbands encouraged their wives to apply for and accept their first superintendency; (c) that husbands' careers were not interrupted; (d) that females in this study are not confronted with insurmountable obstacles related to child care, family responsibilities and household maintenance; (e) that time on the job and time spent on work related tasks emerge as the greatest tradeoff husbands have to make; (f) that husbands tolerate the demands and adjust and adapt; (g) that husbands are viewed as supporters and encouragers and have equal or better educations and positions than their wives; (h) that equality as it relates to earnings and family responsibilities is not important, intellectual equality is; (i) that respondents are unwilling to relocate but would accept another superintendency within commuting distance of their homes; (j) that husbands' support, trust, encouragement and pride are crucial factors in their careers; and (k) that respondents would terminate their employment rather than dissolve their marriages.

Introduction

There is a paucity of females in the top executive positions in educational administration. This is especially true for the position of superintendent. The role of the superintendent of schools is a demanding one which requires the individual to be responsible not only to the board of education but to students, teachers, nonprofessional staff, parents, community, and the state department of education as well as the federal government. It is essential that the superintendent be a skilled manager, an instructional leader with a mission, vision, and purpose, and an individual who is capable of creating a climate conducive to learning, working, and change. The effective leadership of the superintendent produces effectiveness in the schools and in the district.

Industrialization, the feminist movement, new patterns of socialization and the fact that many more women now occupy dual work and family roles have caused women to analyze their own goals and aspirations. Women can be expected to pursue positions which have been considered non-traditional female positions in the past. According to Papanek (1973), "Women have become motivated to achieve and perform in the same spheres and with the same skills as men" (p. 64). This statement was written more than 25 years ago; however, there is a scarcity of women occupying the upper echelon positions in school districts.

Women in the superintendency are a vital untapped culture whose contributions and significance have been minimized. Schmuck (1987) points out that women have been valuable contributors in our educational system for over 100 years. Women have created

schools and have been the majority of teachers since 1860. Schmuck further indicates that the teaching profession has been the recipient of the nation's best and brightest women. Hudson (1991) states that the lack of upward mobility for women in educational administration has attracted widespread attention because women dominate the teaching field and increasing numbers have acquired the necessary formal credentials to hold administrative jobs. The status of females in educational administration appears vividly inconsistent with the ideals of a democratic, egalitarian society. Discrimination in this field is not merely morally repugnant, it is destructive (Coursen, Mazarella, Jeffres and Hadderman 1989).

Historical Perspective

Gotwalt and Towns (1986) point out that historically there has been a correlation between the number of women in educational administration and the feminist movement. They report that 10% of the female population in the late Nineteenth Century were members of what they refer to as one kind of federated women's club or another. Positions for women in public school administration increased as the women's movement grew. Furthermore, they report that during the period between 1910 and 1930 statistics revealed eight women serving as state superintendents, 45 as district superintendents and 213 as county superintendents. But according to the authors "with the Great Depression, membership in women's clubs decreased markedly, crippling what had been a vigorous feminist movement and dealing women school executives a decisive setback" (p. 13).

According to Woo (1985), women represent 53% of the total United States population and 40% of the work force; however, they are highly under represented at the higher levels of

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every profession. She questions the impact of the women's liberation movement which began over 20 years ago. This movement has assisted women in making them more aware of themselves, of expanded opportunities, and of their almost unlimited potential; nevertheless, there are not many women occupying positions at the apex of the educational hierarchy.

The following are the words recited by Ella Flagg Young when she accepted her appointment as superintendent of the Chicago City Schools. Interestingly enough, these words were proclaimed in 1909 (Western Journal of Education, 1909).

I look for a majority of big cities to follow the lead of Chicago in choosing a woman for superintendent. In the near future we will have more women than men in executive charge of the vast educational system. It is woman's natural field, and she is no longer satisfied to do the greatest part of the work and yet be denied leadership. As the first woman to be placed in control of the schools of a big city, it will be my aim to prove that no mistake has been made and to show other critics and friends alike that a woman is better qualified for this work than a man (pp. 515-516).

The following words were proclaimed by Ruth B. Love in 1980 prior to appointment as the second woman superintendent of the Chicago public schools (cited in Shakeshaft, 1987):

Women...are quietly making history by taking their place as top level leaders in the educational institutions of this country...in spite of the fact that progress has been made over recent years, there are still some glaring inequities which cry out for remedy...less than 1% of school superintendents are female. But I'm not worried. I

know we will learn whatever we need to learn to open the doors of the nation's executive suites and to ride through them with confidence and competence...I am convinced that we will institute a whole new form of management, a feminine form that is rooted in solid human values, that nurtures everyone connected with it, that accomplishes practical results with no loss of idealism (p. 18).

It is amazing that these two female superintendents, separated by 78 years, basically proclaimed the same sentiments and predicted the same optimistic vision for women. Yet, in spite of the intervening years, the number of females occupying the superintendency is still minuscule. Shakeshaft (1987) reports consistent male dominance in all positions in school administration since 1905 with the exception of the early days of the elementary school principalship. From 1905 to 1984-85, the following declines were reported: (a) elementary female principals from 61.7% in 1905 to 16.9% in 1984-85, (b) female secondary principals from 5.7% in 1905 to 3.5% in 1984-85. During that same period the percentage of female district superintendents rose from 1.6% in 1905 to a meager 3.0% in 1984-85. Women have not been able to attain the most powerful and prestigious positions in education. For the past 100 years women have been relegated to positions as workers, whereas men have been relegated to management positions.

Tallerico (1992) suggests that the under representation of females in school administrative positions in New York State is a result of the inadequate and inequitable tapping of the talent pool of teachers. Realizing that only 6% of the school superintendents in New York are females, she questions what positions the remaining females in education

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actually occupy. Tallerico presents statistics based on the New York State data from 1989-90. She presents these positions in descending order of frequency with figures indicating the percentage of all New York State positions in each category which are held by women: (a) classroom teacher, 66%; (b) assistant directors/coordinators, 55%; (c) directors/coordinators, 45%; (d) assistant elementary school principals, 45%; (e) elementary school principals, 45%; (f) assistant high school principals, 25%; (g) assistant/associate/deputy superintendents, 23%; (h) business managers, 20%; (i) secondary school principals, 15%; and (j) superintendents, 6% (p. 52).

This list supports the premise that women in New York State are more likely to be employed in teaching positions rather than in positions of authority.

Statement of the Problem

There is a plethora of literature which relates primarily to leadership characteristics and competencies of superintendents. Generally speaking those competencies needed to effectively manage as well as lead a district include skills in communications, planning, human relations, physical and emotional endurance, and integrity. In addition, data have been collected to determine how females measure up to these expectations. Shakeshaft (1987) indicates that women do, as a matter of fact, possess the skills and attributes necessary for success in administrative positions and perform jobs with success equal to their male counterparts.

Although this research is certainly important, there is another aspect of a superintendent's life which is equally and perhaps even more important. It is the role of the

female superintendent's husband and the ability of the husband to adapt to, adjust to, and cope with a role to which he may not necessarily be accustomed or for which he may not be prepared. Research is scarce on what one might call the emotional, professional, and financial "tradeoffs" that a husband must make when his wife accepts a superintendency. While research is limited concerning spouses of male superintendents, it is almost nonexistent with respect to husbands of female superintendents.

Historically these tradeoffs were made by spouses of male superintendents. Glass (1992) reports that spouses are often a determining factor as to whether or not a job is accepted; this could possibly pose a hardship for females in their 40s and 50s if their husbands are not willing to relocate. According to the study, wives of superintendents have occupied the traditional roles of teachers and/or homemakers who believed their roles required participation in school affairs. The experiences and perspectives of male spouses need to be gathered, analyzed, interpreted and made available to females aspiring to the superintendency. For females to continue to aspire to the position of chief school officer and to succeed in that position, it is essential that they clearly recognize and understand the concerns and realities faced by their husbands and the mechanisms husbands utilize to deal with these situations.

The purpose of this research was to: (a) develop a profile of female superintendents, (b) gather information on the experiences and concerns of female superintendents as they relate to their spouses and (c) provide data which may assist females aspiring to the superintendency and females in their first superintendency.

This research focused on female superintendents of school districts in a large northeastern metropolitan region in New York State and addressed the following question:

What impact does the husband of the superintendent have on her job acceptance, performance and retention?

Review of Literature

Administrative positions, such as the superintendency as reported by Marshall (1985), necessitate long hours, an inordinate number of evening meetings, total immersion in the job, and high personal visibility. Men have had greater success in dealing with these difficulties because of the support of their wives; consequently, they have been rewarded with promotions and salary raises causing this model of total devotion and dedication to the job to become a career norm. The same does not hold true for a female. This norm conflicts with what has been traditionally the woman's role. Marshall further points out that women are less likely to have spouses, family and community associates who will tolerate, support and/or reward them for immersing themselves in their careers.

Highman (1985) states that females have been conditioned by society to support and prioritize their husbands' careers and, consequently, will do so. On the other hand males have not experienced the same conditioning. Generally speaking, in the business world husbands have not supported the priority of their wives' careers and are likely to place limits on how much priority they will allow to their wives' ambitions.

Morrison, White and Van Velsor (1987) conducted a three year study of the top female executives in Fortune 100 sized companies and identified three levels of pressure they

were forced to operate with: (a) the job itself, (b) the pressure of their pioneer role in the job and (c) managing the demands in life outside of work. They expound on the pressures of family life and emphasize that women are expected to take care of the household, raise children, nurture an intimate relationship and switch from a tough, no nonsense, efficient professional at the office to a personal sphere where they are expected to be tender, understanding, undemanding and playful. Long term marriages had eschewed many of the female executives. Nineteen percent of the females were divorced or separated and another 11% were remarried. One of the female executives reported the following: "It's easier to be married to a wife than to a husband... There's more pressure on a woman's marriage. There are very few happily married women—on their first marriage—in executive positions" (p. 117).

Blumberg (1985) reports that the time demands on a superintendent can be overwhelming at times. Furthermore he contends that it is difficult for individuals who lead more typical work lives to comprehend what a superintendent and his or her family accept as part of the job. More often than not, superintendents spend at least three nights out per week and frequently more; time demands are severe and unlike those experienced by any other employee in public education. Blumberg emphasizes the need for spouse and family to understand this aspect of the job and be willing to share the superintendent with the public.

In her research on female managers Marshall (1984) addressed the issue of partners' attitudes towards female managers' work. She reported that managers desired and sought acceptance and support for what they were doing. The female managers expressed a strong

preference for symmetrical relationships and indicated that their spouses were home-based mentors who had given their careers consequential boosts. The husbands were more confident and ambitious for their wives than they had been for themselves. In addition, many of the female managers reported that their spouses were actually more stimulated by the wife's job than by their own. The fact that the spouses were proud of their wives and their wives' jobs was important to this sample of female managers. Conversely, some of the spouses in this study were not tolerant of their wives' jobs; consequently, these managers led fragmented lives, did not discuss their jobs at home, and felt pressured to take less interest in their work.

Woo (1985) reports on a study of 450 top women administrators which was conducted at the Center for Women in Educational Leadership at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill in 1985. The purpose of the study was to gather data from these top administrators on the myths and realities they faced in their daily lives as well as factors both positive and negative which affected their professional decisions and growth. Woo reports that a large majority of the women in the study indicated that the support of husbands had been a crucial factor in their careers. Minus their spouses' support the women reported that they would have terminated their employment as top administrators rather than dissolve their marriages. Lynch (1973) reports that female executives' success in marriage can be attributed perhaps to the fact that executive females work with high caliber male executives for the major portion of the day, that they have historically nearly always selected or been selected by men who have been characterized as wonderful helpmates and inspirations and who

almost always have an equal or better position than their wife-executives. Three-quarters of Lynch's sample were married and indicated that they were content with their spouses and their marriages. In her research on husbands of superintendents, Derrington (1991) found that married female superintendents confirm wholeheartedly the need to have their husbands' support, encouragement, trust and pride. Additionally, the subjects in her study reported that (1) equality as it relates to intellectualism as well as family responsibilities was an essential factor and (2) the couple's ability to work out difficulties could not be underscored. Derrington concludes by saying "developing a relationship of mutual support is the cornerstone to surviving and thriving as a married couple when the wife becomes a superintendent" (p. 14).

Horner (1971) claims that females who strive for innovative careers tend to marry men who are not threatened by the success of their spouse, possess strong egos and images of themselves and, as a result, can be proud of the accomplishments of their wives.

In her study of male and female superintendents in metropolitan school districts, Maienza (1986) reported that husbands of female superintendents had more formal education than the spouses of male superintendents. Furthermore, she reported that the spouses of male superintendents possessed some college experience and graduate degrees; however, one third of her female respondents were married to men with professional degrees or the doctorate degree.

Bozzi (1988) studied a group of dual-career couples whose work day, commuting and schedules necessitated separation for ten and a half hours per day. Basically, these couples

spent a little over three waking hours per day together. Bozzi reported that the more time they spent together, whether it was eating, talking and/or playing, the more satisfying their marriages. These three areas constituted quality time for these couples whereas time spent together on housework and child care had no real bearing on their marriages, one way or another.

Lantor (1990) suggests a careful analysis of the following when a female considers a new job offer as a superintendent: (a) the reaction of the superintendent's spouse, (b) reestablishing a career, (c) necessity to deal with distance and (d) professional considerations.

Lantor indicates that, as the trend of dual career couples increases, the following questions will emerge: (a) Is the spouse amenable to moving with the superintendent? (b) what impact does the move have on the spouse's career? (c) will the husband be able to reestablish a career in rural areas where job opportunities are generally fewer for spouses and more difficult to acquire? (d) what if the spouse decides not to move with the superintendent? (e) how do both handle the distance? (f) is a commuting marriage possible? (g) in the event the candidate decides not to accept a new position, does this have an adverse effect on her professional career? and lastly, (h) is it worth it to make the change?

One of the unique characteristics of this country is the fact that a sizable proportion of American families, mostly those in which the breadwinner is categorized as a manager or professional, move a great deal. Particularly in times of economic growth, the movement of families from one locale to another increases, as corporations, for example, shift their personnel (Blumberg, 1985).

Corporate wives suffer from continual moves by having their identities and their sense of self-worth shattered. They are not provided the opportunities and are often void of the necessary energy to reestablish their importance and authority in new communities. Having to leave, to give up and to be separated from friends can be a major trauma of moving. It takes time to make new acquaintances and friends. Geographically mobile couples moving into a new area tend to maintain an aloofness wondering whether one will ever be a part of the community (Seidenberg, 1973).

Highman (1985) states that a company's interest may require the relocation of female managers from geographic locations where they can be spared (or readily replaced) to areas in the country where they are needed. It is generally understood in the business world that transfers are part of progress in a career. The author further contends that married career women by a considerable margin have declined transfers. Highman attributes this rejection of transfer to the women's fear of disrupting their husbands' careers. Furthermore, in the event that the husband agrees to accompany his wife to another city, he may do so reluctantly thus causing strain on the marriage.

Superintendents who relocate often confront a myriad of problems related to personal lifestyles, career choices and learning to live in a new community. For those who are geographically mobile, new dimensions are added to their lives, dimensions which can be frustrating, and, at the same time, exhilarating (Blumberg, 1985). Chase and Bell (1990) examined how gatekeepers (those who control access to positions of power) talk about women who work in the male-dominated occupation of the public school superintendency.

They presented the following comments from a consultant for superintendency searches regarding female place bound superintendents and commuter marriages:

I just think women are more place bound. In a lot of instances, if they have children, they have a husband that has been the major breadwinner. So, therefore, they take themselves out of the running. Whereas a male who is the breadwinner, whose wife is at home doing housework and taking care of two little kids, is in the business to move up and up. The windshield time that would be involved in commuting, I think would be devastating as far as getting the tasks of the job done or just energy. So, I, again, think that until women place profession above marriage or think of some kind of arrangement, househusbands or something like that, then basically women are going to be place bound (p. 171).

Derrington (1991) clearly points out that males and females alike aspiring to the superintendency must be willing to relocate. Women must be willing to go where the jobs are and become career bound versus place bound superintendents. Edson (1988) indicates that women must reassess their initial goals and plans and be willing to alter their feelings regarding mobility if they intend to move into the top executive positions in school districts.

Krchniak (1977) conducted a study of 1,300 female educators in Illinois who had earned administrative certificates but were not employed in educational administration. His survey revealed that approximately 78% were unwilling to relocate in order to secure an administrative position. Paddock (1981) found that less than one half of the female superintendents, assistant superintendents and high school principals in his study were

willing to move and only 28% were willing to move to another state. Conversely, Edson (1988) reported that 75% of the female subjects in her study were willing to move to another district to advance in their careers and 39% were willing to move out of state. She asserts that minority, suburban, Midwestern and Northwestern women demonstrated the most willingness to relocate for new job opportunities. Husbands must now confront the personal, career and emotional tradeoffs previously borne by female aspirants. Issues of geographic mobility can cause problems for a couple especially when both individuals desire to advance their careers. Problems arise when partners have to decide whether or not the family should relocate for a single job opportunity. For some couples, the wife's position may result in the maintenance of dual residences and a commuter marriage.

In The School Superintendent: Living with Conflict Blumberg (1985) discusses the pressures and family problems career bound superintendents encounter and presents the following excerpt from an interview with a male superintendent:

It has been tough on my wife. She has had to make the moves. She now says she never wants to move again and that she cried every time it happened. But she has learned how to survive through it all. She felt she had to do it, and she did it. But, of course, she paid a price, and I understand that. So the last couple of moves were easier for her. The first was devastating to the point where we had problems concerning the survival of our marriage (p. 167).

Edson (1988) maintains that whatever solutions couples find to solve the job mobility problems of two-career families, it is clear they no longer assume that only the mate's career

plans are significant. When discussing job-related moves, couples weigh the advantages and disadvantages for both partners and explore options that may be mutually beneficial to their careers. Nevertheless, couples must be aware that alternating career moves or living apart may ultimately prove costly and unsatisfactory.

If her ambitions are great, a woman may even find it necessary, as men have had to do, to adapt her personal lifestyle, her associations, her philosophy and conceivably her ethics to the requirements of those ambitions—to conformance with the standards of her employer and its top management. She may even end up marrying her company and divorcing her husband (Highman, 1985).

In their study which dealt with a comparison of single—versus dual—career families' impact on husbands, Staines, Pottick, and Fudge (1986) compared certain outcomes of husbands whose wives did not work with those of husbands whose wives worked twenty or more hours per week. They concluded that wives' employment was negatively associated with husbands' jobs and with life satisfaction and indicated the following: "The most plausible explanation of the lower job and life satisfaction of husbands of employed wives appears to lie in their feelings of being less adequate as bread winners for their families" (p. 126).

Cooper and Davidson (1982) report that women managers are required to deal with problems that often arise when they exceed their husbands in terms of salary and status. Men view their role of bread winner as being very important in relation to self esteem; this may in some cases result in divorce. According to these researchers many senior female executives

choose to marry or remarry higher status and higher salaried partners. Highman (1985) warns that success in a wife's career may cause resentment on the part of the husband, his self image may deteriorate, and animosity may develop. If the wife advances higher in her career than her husband does in his, she may lose respect for her husband's abilities.

She may gain a sense of her own worth and financial independence, the former lack of which may have kept her tied to an unhappy marriage, or to one not as happy as she thinks another way of life could be. Another possibility is that she could gain an exaggerated idea of her own worth that makes her difficult to live with; or, simply a valid one, which her husband finds too threatening to his own ego (p. 125).

Married executive women may also experience problems related to income. Their incomes may be more than their husbands', which may damage or destroy their marriage (Morrison, et al., 1982).

There has been a real strain on our marriage which comes and goes. In a previous job, my salary jumped much higher than my husband's. Then he caught up. When I took my present job, the salary and bonuses put me way above him again. He changed jobs in January after four months of interviewing. He did this without telling me a thing. My husband said one reason was that I did not think enough of the people he had been associating with. I think the real reason is he could become a partner one day and reach parity with me (p. 118).

Blumberg (1985) presents two aspects of the superintendency which may cause severe pressure on the relationships with spouse and family: (a) the inordinate amount of time the

superintendent spends on the job and (b) the need of the wife to seek her own identity and thus separate herself from being defined as a superintendent's wife. The husband of the female superintendent is faced with the same issues and pressures and must deal effectively with both. Little is known about female superintendents and their spouses, the trend setters and the pioneers.

Methodology

The purpose of this research was to (a) develop a profile of female superintendents, (b) gather information on the experiences and concerns of superintendents and their husbands, (c) provide data which may assist females aspiring to the superintendency and females in their first superintendency. Research concerning spouses of male superintendents is limited; it is almost nonexistent with respect to husbands of superintendents. The topic concerning the impact husbands have on the female superintendents' job acceptance, performance and retention does not have a clear theory to test. It is, however, a topic ripe for study and to this end the researcher designed a methodology which would obtain quantitative as well as qualitative data. A combination of two data gathering instruments was used. One was a structured questionnaire as a first source of data. This was followed by an in-depth taped interview which allowed each respondent to expound on those areas which she considered most significant.

Due to the fact that not all of the 21 participants were married, three questionnaires and three interview guides were developed: (a) one of each for married superintendents, (b)

one of each for superintendents who have never been married and (c) one of each for divorced superintendents.

Sample

Subjects for this study were selected from the population of female superintendents in New York State. As reported earlier there was at the time of this study a total of 789 superintendents in New York State. 91 (11.5%) of which were females. This research focused on female superintendents of school districts in a large northeastern metropolitan area of New York State. Because of the high percentage of females located in this area, it was anticipated that the results of the questionnaire and case studies would yield commonalties, insights, strategies and understandings applicable to practicing superintendents and those aspiring to the superintendency throughout New York State and the nation. Twenty-eight superintendents were contacted; 21 of the 28 agreed to participate in the study.

Conclusions

Shakeshaft (1987) reports consistent male dominance in all positions in school administration since 1905 with the exception of the early days of the elementary school principalship. As the findings of this study indicate, females in this large northeastern metropolitan region of New York State are coming into their own as superintendents. Significant gains in the number of respondents occupying the position of superintendent were made between 1989 and 1992 and between 1992 and 1995. In 1989, 14.3% of the

respondents were superintendents, in 1992, 47.6%, and in 1995, 100% occupied the position of superintendent.

Lantor (1990) indicates that as married females ascend the educational administration ladder, husbands will be faced with decisions about interrupting their professional work to further their wives' aspirations and goals. The majority of the married respondents reported that their husbands were not faced with such decisions; their careers were not interrupted. Serious problems resulted in the three cases where the careers of the husbands were interrupted when respondents accepted their first superintendency.

The wives and husbands in this study do not have traditional marriages. According to Smith and Reid (1986),

In the pure traditional marriage the husband and wife spend the bulk of their work time in different task domains. Who is the wife and who is the husband can be readily identified from the content of the work performed. The bulk of the husband's work time would be spent in earning money, most of the wife's in domestic and child care (p. 11).

Contrary to the findings of Smith (1982) and Marshall (1992) the females in this study are not confronted with insurmountable obstacles related to child care, family responsibilities and household maintenance. Family responsibilities do not stand in the way of these women's careers. By and large the women in this study purchase services: cleaning lady or live-in housekeeper, lawn service or gardener. Most of their work time is not spent on domestic chores and child care. The respondents, with the exception of three, do not have

school age children. Of these three who do have children, one respondent employs an au pair to care for her son. As previously stated, the salaries of the respondents are substantial. As a result the respondents have the financial resources to purchase needed services.

All of the respondents emphatically concur with Marshall (1985) that the superintendency necessitates long hours, an inordinate number of evening meetings, total immersion in the job and high personal visibility. Time is an issue. The amount of time superintendents spend on the job and the amount of time they spend on work related tasks at home emerge as the greatest emotional tradeoff husbands have to make. The inordinate amount of time the superintendency requires is a basic theme evident in all of the case study reports. Marshall further indicates that women are less likely to have husbands who will tolerate, support or reward them for immersing themselves in their careers. This is not the case in this study. Husbands do tolerate these demands and support their wives. Husbands in this study are viewed as the respondents' supporters and encouragers. Blumberg (1985) emphasizes the need for the husband to understand the severe time demands placed upon the wife and the need for him to be willing to share her with the public. The husbands in this study appear to understand and they are willing to share their wives with the public.

According to Gilbert (1988),

Characteristics evolve for husbands and wives alike in mutually supportive marriages.

Women often show a stronger sense of self-direction, independence and confidence.

For men, interpersonal warmth and expressivity take on more prominence. In

essence, partners encourage one another to display characteristics inhibited by

traditional socialization. This mutual enhancement of expressivity in husbands and of self-esteem and independence in wives may be an important ingredient in the marital quality of successful dual career marriages (p. 92).

Gilbert further contends that it is unlikely that a dual career marriage will succeed if the husband is highly competitive, has high power needs, has traditional views of sex roles and shows little interest in supporting his wife's career. This was the case for one of the two divorced females. Accepting her first superintendency resulted in a divorce. She attributed the divorce in large measure, to the factors Gilbert describes.

Horner (1971) claims that females who strive for innovative careers tend to marry men who are not threatened by the success of their husband, possess a strong ego and image of themselves and who, as a result, can be proud of the accomplishments of their wives. This study concurs with Horner. Respondents indicate that these are characteristics their husbands possess. They also report that their husbands are well established in their careers and are secure in their images of themselves. These findings are also consistent with Gilbert (1988) who reports that husbands in enduring dual career marriages possess high ego, strength and emotional security. These husbands possess a capacity to value their wives' identity.

Consistent with Maienza's findings (1986) the husbands of the respondents have college degrees. Doctorate degrees are held by 35.7% of the husbands. Cooper and Davidson (1982) found that many senior female executives chose to marry or remarry higher status and higher salaried partners. Consistent with their findings the married respondents in this study have selected or been selected by men who can be characterized as helpmates and

inspirations who have equal or better educations and positions than their wives.

Equality as it relates to earnings is not important to the respondents and they believe it is not important to their husbands. According to Gilbert (1988), "If husbands feel satisfied with their careers and mutually supportive in their marital relationships, differences in salary affect them very little" (p. 155).

Contrary to Morrison, White and Van Velsor (1982) the married respondents and their husbands in this study do not experience problems related to income which may damage or destroy their marriages when they exceed their husbands in terms of salary. This may be attributed to the fact that the combined salaries of the married respondents and their husbands are substantial as previously noted. While equality as it relates to earnings is not important, 100% of the respondents concur with Derrington (1990) and indicate that intellectual equality is important.

Consistent with the studies of Paddock (1981) and Krchniak (1977) which largely described women as immobile and unlikely to relocate to a distant community or another state, the majority of the respondents are not willing to relocate. They are, however, willing to accept another superintendency within commuting distance of their home. They can be described as location bound versus career or place bound. According to Blumberg (1985) career bound superintendents encounter pressures and problems related to moving. These superintendents and their husbands will not by choice experience these pressures and problems. Seindburg (1973) indicates that corporate wives suffer from continual moves by having their identity and their sense of worth shattered. Furthermore, she reports that having

to leave, to give up and be separated from friends can be a major trauma of moving. For three cases in this study significant problems for the respondents and their husbands were created as a result of relocation.

Derrington (1991) found that married female superintendents confirm wholeheartedly the need to have their husbands' support, encouragement, trust and pride. The respondents also confirmed the same need and indicated that their husbands' support, encouragement, trust and pride are crucial factors in their careers.

Implications of the Study

There were 789 superintendents in the State of New York of which 91 (11.5%) were females. In this study the number of respondents occupying the position of superintendent increased dramatically between 1989 and 1992. This study suggests that the number of females applying for and ultimately accepting the superintendency in this area will increase. Also according to Volp, Whitehill, Davis and Barretta (1995), 40% of the current superintendents in New York State plan to retire in the next five years and 66% intend to retire by the year 2004. This potential "leadership vacuum" as they refer to it will open the door for female aspirants. The females in this study, the majority of which are in their first superintendency, are the pioneers who will serve as models for female aspirants in this region and throughout the state.

Radich (1992), in a study of female superintendents in the State of Washington, reported that women will likely be selected for small, rural districts versus large school districts. She attributed this to a lack of superintendent experience and a feeling that females

must "pay their dues" before moving into a larger district. This is not the case in this study. Of the total sample 42.9% hold superintendencies with pupil enrollments of 5001 or more. It can be assumed that females in this region will continue to pursue superintendencies in larger districts. This may be attributed to the fact that their number of years in educational administration ranges from 4.5 to 33 years and 61.9% have their doctorates. Perhaps "paying their dues" has been in the form of educational administration experience and reaching the apex of their educational hierarchy by earning a doctorate.

The marriages in this study are independent of a gender-based division of labor and do not resemble traditional marriages. Neither husband nor wife is burdened with domestic care-taking or with financial provision. Both participants are in gainful employment. According to Freeman (1990) when individuals are freed of gender convention, they can choose partners on different grounds.

A man's earning power and a woman's domestic aptitude are no longer pivotal in the marriage contract. The measure of a husband turns less on financial provision and more on active support in promoting an equal relationship. The measure of a wife turns less on homemaking and more on partnership (p. 154).

This study suggests that females occupying the superintendency and those aspiring to the superintendency must deviate from the traditional roles as must their spouses. Conventional approaches to the roles of husband and wife eschewed the respondents in this study. Household maintenance and responsibilities of family and home were not obstacles. Respondents simply purchased whatever services were needed, suggesting that due to

monumental time demands this was the only way to efficiently and effectively deal with this aspect of the marriage. These responsibilities were not issues or concerns; they needed to be addressed and were.

The vast majority of the married respondents applied for and accepted their first superintendency because of the support and encouragement they received from their husbands. A common theme throughout this study was the role of husband as a supporter and encourager. His impact on the superintendent's job acceptance was evident and significant. The implication is that female superintendents should marry or be married to men who fit the profile of a supporter and encourager who take pride in their wives and their accomplishments.

Strong sentiments were echoed regarding remaining in the location with which they were familiar and in which they were secure. These superintendents, although they would seek superintendencies within commuting distance, have no desires or intentions of relocating. The pressures and problems associated with relocation were not experienced by the majority of the respondents.

The vast majority of the respondents in this study did not move into the district when they were hired; 100% did not live in the district in which they applied for the superintendency. Husbands' careers, with the exception of three superintendencies were not interrupted. For the three whose husbands interrupted their careers, the results were problematic. This study suggests that serious attempts should be made not to interrupt the husband's career. Furthermore, it suggests that the problems are multiplied and magnified

when the husband retires and the couple relocates. When a husband retires it may not be the time for a female to accept her first superintendency. She, on the one hand, is at the zenith of her career and he is ending his. He may not be able to be the encourager and supporter when he is dealing with his own issues regarding age, identity and self worth. When one combines these feelings with relocating and giving up friends and familiarity of one's surroundings these problems are intensified and possibly insurmountable.

All of the respondents strongly concur that the superintendency necessitates long hours, an inordinate number of evening meetings, total immersion in the job and high personal visibility. The severe time demands are a reality to which their spouses have adjusted and adapted. The husbands have adjusted and adapted by engaging in leisure time activities or working when their wives are working. The adaptability index was heightened when husbands also had high power careers; the demands were similar. The implication is that female superintendents should marry or be married to men who are able to adjust and adapt to the demands of the superintendency.

Only three respondents have children at home; one of these employs an au pair to care for her son. These women are also in their forties and fifties, beyond the conventional child bearing years. The assumption is that the majority have raised their children before accepting the superintendency or they do not have children. These females are not faced with child care issues because they do not have school age children. In this study there are very few children who have to adjust and adapt to their mother's spending an inordinate amount of time away from home.

Superintendents report that their husbands' trust, support, encouragement and pride are crucial factors in their careers. The theme of supporter and encourager emerged once again. For the majority of superintendents in this study, marriage was their first priority. They would terminate their employment if their jobs as superintendent came into irreconcilable differences with their marriages.

Recommendations for Those Aspiring to the Superintendency in 1998

In order to succeed in the superintendency it is suggested that females aspiring to the superintendency give serious consideration to the following suggestions based on this research:

1. Females should be very selective when selecting a superintendency.
2. Females should accept their first superintendency when they are absolutely sure that the district they are considering is a good match.
3. Females should accept their first superintendency within commuting distance of their home.
4. Superintendents should remain in their own homes close to friends, family and familiar surroundings.
5. Females aspiring to the superintendency should marry or be married to someone who fully understands the time demands of the superintendency, to someone who is a supporter and encourager and someone who possesses equal or better education and position than their own.

6. When accepting the first superintendency the husband's career should not be interrupted. Females should not accept their first superintendency and have their spouse retire at the same time.
7. Females should realize that due to time demands they will have to purchase services. They cannot be overly concerned with traditional female expectations.
8. Females should accept their first superintendency when their children no longer live at home.

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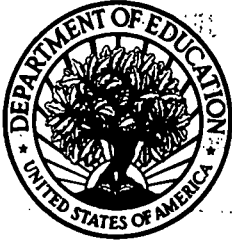
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